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THEORY OF COMPUTATION (V-SEM., IT-BRANCH)

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THEORY OF COMPUTATION, DESCRIPTION OF FINITE TRANSITION FUNCTIONS, DESIGNING FINITE AUTOMATA, FINITE AUTOMATA, EQUIVALENCE OF FINITE AUTOMATA AND MOORE MACHINES

What is computation ?

A branch of computer science that deals with the study of a model of computation using

(R.G.P.V., June 2010)

A model of a digital computer. Every computer is. It has a mechanism for reading data over a given alphabet, written on a tape. An automaton can only read. This file is one symbol. The input mechanism reads one symbol at a time. Also the automaton reads the input string (sensing end-of-file

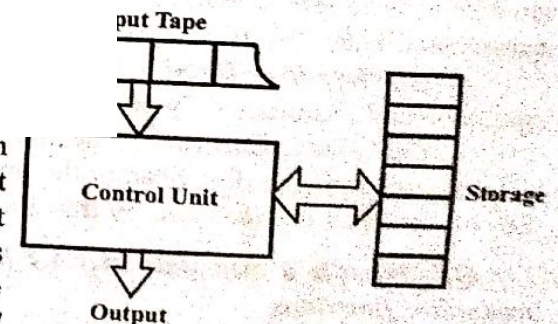


Fig. 1.1 A General Automaton

finite number of **internal states**. The control unit can change state in some defined manner. Fig. 1.1 shows a diagram of a general automaton.

An automaton is supposed to operate in a discrete time frame. At some given time, the control unit is in some internal state, and the input mechanism is scanning a specific symbol on the input tape. The step is obtained by the **next-state** or **transition function**. The transition function gives the next state in terms of the current input tape, and the information current transition from one time interval to the next information in the temporary storage changes the particular state of the control unit, input tape from one configuration to the next is called a configuration.

Q.3. Write short note on finite automata.

Ans. Finite automata is denoted by $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$.

- (i) Q : finite set of states.
- (ii) Σ : finite set of inputs.
- (iii) δ : transition function $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$.
- (iv) q_0 : initial state, $q_0 \in Q$.
- (v) F : set of final states such that $F \subseteq Q$.

The above model is represented as follows:

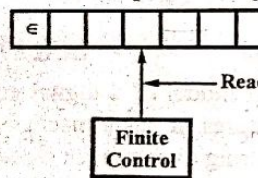


Fig. 1.2 Block Diagram

Various components of a finite automaton are:

- (i) **Input Tape** – Input tape consists of a sequence of squares, each square containing a single symbol. The input is processed from left to right in input tape.
- (ii) **Reading Head** – The reading head moves along the input tape and examines only one square at a time.
- (iii) **Finite Control** – The finite control unit is currently under the reading head or the control unit which is calculated by transition function on the inputs.

Q.4. What is a trap state in FA? State and explain the properties of transition functions.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2015)

Ans. The automata in fig. 1.3 remains in its initial state q_0 until the first b is encountered. If this is also the last symbol of the input, then the string is accepted.

If not, the DFA goes into state q_2 , from which it can never escape. Such a state is called a trap state.

The properties of transition functions are as follows –

1. **Uniqueness** – For a given state q and input symbol a , there is only one next state $\delta(q, a)$.

2. **Closure** – If q is a state and a is an input symbol, then $\delta(q, a)$ must be a state in Q .

3. **Associativity** – If q is a state and a, b are input symbols, then $\delta(\delta(q, a), b) = \delta(q, ab)$.

4. **Identity** – If q is a state and ϵ is the empty string, then $\delta(q, \epsilon) = q$.

5. **Final State** – If q is a final state and a is an input symbol, then $\delta(q, a)$ must be a final state.

What are they?

A **transition graph** or **transition diagram**, is a directed graph. It is just a simple graph with directed edges representing transitions. The vertices are labeled with state names. The edges are labeled with input symbol values. For example, a transition from state q_0 to state q_1 labeled a represents the transition rule $\delta(q_0, a) = q_1$. The vertex with label q_0 is the initial state, and the vertex with label q_2 is the final state.

A **deterministic finite automaton** (DFA) is a finite automaton with exactly one transition for each state and each input symbol. The vertex with label q_0 is the initial state, and the vertex with label q_2 is the final state.

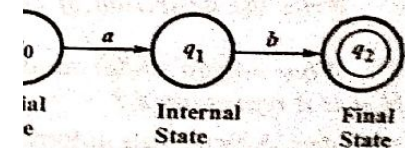


Fig. 1.4 Transition Graph

Fig. 1.4 represents the DFA, where δ is given by

$$M = (\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, \{a, b\}, \delta, q_0, \{q_2\})$$

$$\delta(q_0, a) = q_0$$

$$\delta(q_0, b) = q_1$$

$$\delta(q_1, b) = q_2$$

$$\delta(q_2, a, b) = q_2$$

Q.6. Define finite state machine (FSM) with example.

Ans. This machine will consist of input-output relation at every state and also the changes of the states that will occur on receiving the input at a particular state. Hence we will require the mapping in two forms. At a particular state, for a given input, what is the output.

$$S \times I \rightarrow O$$

and at a particular state on receiving the input

$$S \times I \rightarrow S$$

These are respectively known as machine function (S.T.F.). Both of them are functions of state and current input but their results are different.

(i) A finite set of states

$$S = \{S_0, S_1, S_2, \dots\}$$

(ii) A special element of set 'S' is

(iii) An input alphabet, $I = \{i_0, i_1, \dots\}$

(iv) An output alphabet, $O = \{O_0, O_1, \dots\}$

(v) A function $S \times I \rightarrow S$ (S.T.F)

(vi) A function $S \times I \rightarrow O$ (M.A.F)

At any state the machine is in any of its states. When an input symbol is received, the state changes using state transition function. As the machine produces an output using machine function. The class of machines is known as finite state machine. The class of machines is known as finite state machine.

Q.7. Give a detailed explanation of DFA.

Or
Discuss the finite state system with DFA.

Or
Write a short note on one way finite state machine.

Or
Write the definition of DFA.

Or
What do you understand by DFA (DFA) and how is it represented?

Ans. A finite state automaton or finite automaton deterministic finite state machine (DFSM) or deterministic finite acceptor (DFA) is a 5 tuple machine that can be represented as,

$$M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$$

where, (i) Q is a finite non-empty set of states

(ii) Σ is a finite non-empty set of input symbols called terminals of input alphabets

(iii) δ is a function which maps $Q \times \Sigma$ into Q and is usually called direct transition function. This function describes the change of states during the transition. Usually, this mapping is represented by a transition table or a transition diagram

(iv) q_0 is the initial state and $q_0 \in Q$

and $F \subseteq Q$.

A deterministic finite acceptor is as follows – It starts from an initial state q_0 , with its input mechanism. During every move of the automaton, it moves to the right, so each move consumes one input symbol (i.e., after having all input symbols, the machine is in one of its final states, otherwise it only move from left to right, it cannot read only one input symbol at a time. The transition function δ governs the transition from one state to another. If $(q_0, a) = q_1$, then, if initially the DFA is at state q_0 , the DFA will go into state q_1 .

Deterministic finite automata.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2002)

Instead of moves for an automaton. Instead of a single transition function, this allows a set of possible transitions, refining the transition function such that it is a function from $Q \times \Sigma$ to 2^Q .

DFA is defined as a 5-tuple machine –

$(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$

where Q is a finite set of states

Σ is a finite set of input symbols

δ is a mapping from $Q \times \Sigma$ into 2^Q which is a subset of Q

$q_0 \in Q$

and $F \subseteq Q$.

and as,

$$\delta: Q \times (\Sigma \cup \{\Lambda\}) \rightarrow 2^Q$$

There are three major differences between DFA and NFA. In an NFA, the range of δ is in the power set 2^Q , so that its value is not a single symbol of Q , but a subset of it, which defines the set of all possible states that can be reached by the transition. For example, if the current state is q_1 , the symbol read is a , and

$$\delta(q_1, a) = \{q_2, q_3\}$$

then either q_0 or q_2 could be the next state of the NDFA. Also, we allow λ as the second argument of δ . It means that the NDFA can make a transition without consuming an input symbol. Although in NDFA also, the input mechanism can only travel to the right it may become stationary on some moves. Moreover, in an NDI the transition $\delta(q_i, a)$ may be empty, i.e., there is no transition defined for that particular situation.

Like DFAs, NDFAs can be represented by transition graphs. The vertices can be determined by Q , while an edge (q_i, q_j) with label b is in the graph if and only if (q_i, b) contains q_j . But, since b may be an empty string, so there can be some edges with labelled λ or ϵ or λ .

For example, consider the transition

The sequence of states for the input

An input string is accepted by an NDFA, if there is some sequence of possible moves that put the machine in a final state at the end of the string (i.e., after having the last symbol been read), and is rejected only when there is no possible sequence of moves by which any final state can be reached.

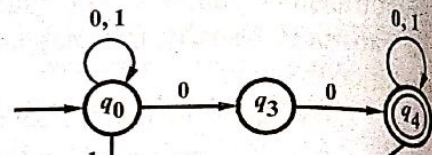
In the above example shown in figure, the input string 0100 will be accepted. $\delta(q_0, 0100) = \{q_0, q_3, q_4\}$.

Q.9. Define two-way finite automaton.

Define two-way deterministic finite automaton (2DFA).

Write short note on two-way finite automata.

Define two-way finite automata.



Ans. The finite automaton is a control unit that reads a tape, moving one square right at each move. We added non-determinism to the model, which allows many "copies" of the control unit to exist and scan the tape simultaneously. Next we added λ -transitions, which allowed change of state without reading an input symbol or moving the tape head. Another extension is to allow the

as right. Such a finite automaton is a **FA**. It accepts an input string if it enters the tape, at the same time entering an input symbol. A generalization does not increase the power of FA, that is deterministic and i.e., not stationary, at each move. A two-way finite automaton or 2DFA is a quintuple $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$

the input alphabets

and

maps from $Q \times \Sigma$ to $Q \times \{L, R\}$.

When reading input symbol a , the 2DFA moves the tape head left or right one square. If $\delta(q, a) = (p, R)$, the head moves right one square.

The 2DFA behaves as follows, starting in state q_0 . If the tape head moves right until encountering a '0', at which point the head is repeated 'M' has three states, all of

1
q_1, R
q_2, L
q_2, L

and input string is **101001**.

Since q_0 is the initial state, the first ID is

q0101001

To obtain the second 'ID', note that the symbol to the immediate 'Right' of the state ' q_0 ' in the first 'ID' is a '1' and $\delta(q_0, 1)$ is (q_1, R) thus the second

ID is $q_1, 01001$ continue in this way we get the result.

$q_0, 101001$
 $\xrightarrow{q_1, 1, R}$
 $\vdash 1q_1, 01001$
 $\xrightarrow{q_1, R}$
 $\vdash 10q_1, 1001$ move till we
 $\xrightarrow{q_2, L}$
 $\vdash 1q_2, 01001$
 $\xrightarrow{q_0, R}$
 $\vdash 10q_0, 1001$
 $\xrightarrow{q_1, R}$
 $\vdash 101q_1, 001$
 $\xrightarrow{q_1, R}$
 $\vdash 1010q_1, 01$
 $\xrightarrow{q_1, R}$
 $\vdash 10100q_1, 1$
 $\xrightarrow{q_2, L}$
 $\vdash 1010q_2, 01$
 $\xrightarrow{q_0, R}$
 $\vdash 10100q_0, 1$
 $\xrightarrow{q_1, R}$
 $\vdash 101001q_1$

Q.10. Write short note on equivalence of DFA and NFA.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2002, June 2010)

Ans. Since every DFA is an NFA, it is clear that the class of languages accepted by NFAs includes the regular sets (the language accepted by DFAs). However, it turns out that these are the only sets accepted by NFAs. For every NFA, we can construct an equivalent DFA that accepts the same language. The way a DFA simulates an NFA is to allow the states of DFA to correspond to sets of states of the NFA. The constructed DFA keeps track

in its finite control of all states that the NFA could be in after reading the same input as the DFA has read.

Two finite accepters M_1 and M_2 are said to be equivalent if

$$L(M_1) = L(M_2)$$

that is, both accept the same languages.

as shown in fig. 1.7. It is equivalent to say that they both accept the same language. For example, strings ending with ab

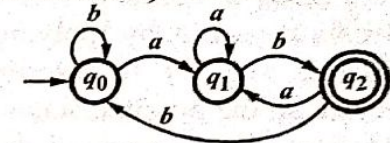


Fig. 1.8

Converting an NFA to DFA.

To convert an NFA to a DFA by following steps –

1. Choose a start vertex $\{q_0\}$. Identify this vertex as

the start state (e) until no more edges are missing –
 $\{q_1, \dots, q_k\}$ of graph G_D that has no

edges $(q_j, a), \dots, \delta^*(q_k, a)$.

2. Add all these δ^* , yielding the set

of vertices G_D labelled $\{q_0, q_1, \dots, q_n\}$ if

there is an edge in G_D from $\{q_i, q_j, \dots, q_k\}$ to

some vertex whose label contains any $q_f \in F_N$

3. The state $\{q_0\}$ in graph G_D is also made a

final state. Each pass through the loop in step (ii) adds an edge to graph G_D . But G_D has at most $2^{|Q_N|} | \Sigma |$ edges, so that the loop eventually stops.

Q.12. Prove that for every NFA, there exists a DFA which simulates the behaviour of NFA.

Or

Prove that if L is the set accepted by NFA, then there exists a DFA which also accepts L .

Ans. Proof – Let $M_N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an N DFA accepting L . We construct a DFA, M_D , as follows –

$$M_D = (Q', \Sigma, \delta', q_0', F')$$

where, (i) $Q' = 2^Q$ (any state in Q' is denoted by $[q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots, q_i]$ where $q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots, q_i \in Q$)

(ii) $q_0' = [q_0]$

(iii) F' is the set of all subset

Before going to define δ' , we look M_N is initially at q_0 . But, by applying an of the states in $\delta(q_0, a)$. To describe M a , we require all the possible states that a . So, M_D has to remember all these Hence, the states of M_D are defined as state q_0 . q_0' is defined as $[q_0]$. A string one of the possible states M_N reaches o (i.e., an element of F') is any subset of

Now, we can define δ' as,

$$(iv) \delta'([q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots] = \delta(q_1, a) \cup \delta(q_2, a)$$

Equivalently,

$$\delta'([q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots]$$

if and only if

$$\delta(\{q_1, \dots, q_i\}, a) =$$

Before proving $L = L(M_D)$ we pr

$$\delta'(q_0', x) = [q_1, \dots]$$

if and only if $\delta(q_0, x) = \{q_1, \dots,$

We prove by induction on $|x|$, the

$$\delta'(q_0', x) = [q_1, q_2, \dots, q]$$

When $|x| = 0$, $\delta(q_0, \Lambda) = \delta'(q_0', \Lambda) = q_0' = [q_0]$. So, equation (ii) is a basis for induction. Assume that the

y with $|y| \leq m$. Let x be a string of length $m+1$. We may write x as ya , where $|y| = m$ and $a \in \Sigma$. Let $\delta(q_0, y) = \{p_1, \dots, p_j\}$ and $\delta(q_0, ya) = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_k\}$. As $|y| \leq m$, then by inductive assumption, we have –

$$\delta'(q_0', y) = [p_1, \dots, p_j]$$

$$\text{Also, } \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_k\}$$

$$= \delta(q_0, ya)$$

$$= \delta(\delta(q_0, y), a) = \delta(\{p_1, \dots, p_j\}, a)$$

By definition of δ' –

$$\delta'([p_1, \dots, p_j], a) = [r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k] \quad \dots(iv)$$

Hence,

$$\delta'(q_0', ya) = \delta'(\delta'(q_0', y), a)$$

$$\dots, p_j], a) = [r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k]$$

[by equation (iii) and equation (iv)]

$$q_3, \dots, q_i],$$

is.

proved similarly.

ϵ) contains a state of F . As we have state of F if and only if $\delta'(q_0', x)$ is $\in L(M_D)$. This proves that DFA,

outputs. What are the differences between them?

example) –

machine.

(R.G.P.V., June 2010)

output. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2004)

re machine. (R.G.P.V., Nov. 2018)

output, i.e., they accept the string bility is decided on the basis of tial state. This restriction can be the output can be chosen from ict approaches, first in which the lled a **Moore machine** and second

In other words, the value of the output function $Z(t)$ in the general case, is a function of the current state $q(t)$ and the present input $a(t)$, i.e.,

$$Z(t) = \lambda(q(t), a(t))$$

where λ is called the output function. This generalized model is called **Mealy machine**. If the output function $Z(t)$ depends only on the present state and is independent of the current input, the output function may be written as –

$$Z(t) = \lambda(q(t))$$

This restricted model is called **Moore machine**. It is more convenient to use Moore machine in automata theory.

Formally, we define each as follows –

(i) **Moore Machine** – The Moore machine is a six-tuple machine $(Q, \Sigma, \Delta, \delta, \lambda, q_0)$, where

- Q is a finite set of
- Σ is the input alpha
- Δ is the output alph
- δ is the transition f
- λ is the output func
- q_0 is the initial state

The λ is a mapping from Q to Δ giving the output of M in response to input A . The output string is $\lambda(q_0)\lambda(q_1)\dots\lambda(q_n)$, where $q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{i-1}, a_i = q_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. It is no response to input A . The DFA may be where the output alphabet is $\{0,1\}$ and state q is “accepting” if and only if $\lambda(q) = 1$.

For example, table 1.1 shows a Moore machine. The initial state q_0 is marked with an arrow. The table defines δ and λ . For the input string 0111, the transition of states is given by

$q_0 \rightarrow q_3 \rightarrow q_0 \rightarrow q_1 \rightarrow q_2$

The output string is 00010. For the

(ii) **Mealy Machine** – The Mealy machine is a six-tuple machine $(Q, \Sigma, \Delta, \delta, \lambda, q_0)$, where all the symbols in the Moore machine. λ is the output function. $\lambda(q, a)$ gives the output associated with state q and input symbol a . The output of M in response to input string A is $\lambda(q_0, a_1)\lambda(q_1, a_2)\dots\lambda(q_{n-1}, a_n)$, where q_0, q_1, \dots, q_n is the sequence of states such that $\delta(q_{i-1}, a_i) = q_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. It is noted that this sequence has length n rather than length $n + 1$ as for the Moore machine, and on input A a Mealy machine gives output A .

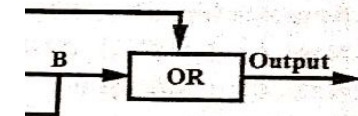
For example, table 1.2 shows a Mealy machine which defines δ and λ . For the input string 0011, the transition of states is given by $q_1 \rightarrow q_3 \rightarrow q_2 \rightarrow q_4 \rightarrow q_3$.

and the output string is 0100. In the case of Mealy machine, we get an output only on the application of an input symbol. So for input string A , the output is only A , while in the Moore machine the output is $\lambda(q_0)$.

Table 1.2 A Mealy Machine

Next State		
$a = I$		
out	State	Output
	q_2	0
	q_4	0
	q_1	1
	q_3	0

with output capability? Draw a logic circuit.



(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2015)

to current by 0. We identify four cases or not.

out		
B		
	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

The operation of this circuit is such that after an input of 0's and 1's, the states changes according to the following rules –

New B = Old A

New A = (Input) NAND (old A OR old B)

Output = Input OR old B

(\therefore D Flip flop)

Suppose we are in state q_0 and we are not receiving current i.e., input = 0
 New $B = \text{Old } A = 0$ (Intable, $A = 0$, in state q_0)

$$\boxed{\text{New } B = 0}$$

New $A = (\text{Input}) \text{ NAND } (\text{old } A \text{ OR old } B)$

New $A = 0 \text{ NAND } (0 \text{ OR } 0)$

New $A = 0 \text{ NAND } 0$

$$\boxed{\text{New } A = 1}$$

Output = Input OR old B

Output = 0 or 0

$$\boxed{\text{Output} = 0}$$

The next state is q_2 because, new
 If we are in state q_0 and we receive

$$\boxed{\text{New } B = \text{Old } A = 0}$$

New $A = \text{Input NAND } (\text{old } A \text{ OR old } B)$

New $A = 1 \text{ NAND } (0 \text{ OR } 0)$

New $A = 1 \text{ NAND } 0$

$$\boxed{\text{New } A = 1}$$

Output = 1 OR 0

$$\boxed{\text{Output} = 1}$$

The next state is q_2 (because new
 If we are in state q_1

Let, Input = 0 (No current)

$$\boxed{\text{New } B = \text{Old } A = 0}$$

New $A = \text{Input NAND } (\text{old } A \text{ OR old } B)$

New $A = 0 \text{ NAND } 1$

$$\boxed{\text{New } A = 1}$$

Output = 0 OR 1

$$\boxed{\text{Output} = 1}$$

therefore next state is q_2 ($\because A = 1, B = 0$)
 when Input = 1 (with current)

$$\boxed{\text{New } B = \text{Old } A = 0}$$

New $A = 1 \text{ NAND } (0 \text{ OR } 1)$

New $A = 1 \text{ NAND } 1$

$$\boxed{\text{New } A = 0}$$

Output = 1 OR 1

$$\boxed{\text{Output} = 1}$$

(from table)

therefore next state is q_3 ($\because A = 1, B = 1$)
 when input = 1

$$\boxed{\text{New } A = 1}$$

Output = 0 OR 1

$$\boxed{\text{Output} = 1}$$

$$\boxed{\text{New } B = \text{Old } A = 1}$$

New $A = 1$ NAND (1 OR 1)

New $A = 1$ NAND 1

New $A = 0$

Output = 1 OR 1

Output = 1

therefore next state is q_1 ($\because A = 0, B =$

Table 1.3 Tra

Old State	Input =	
	New State	O
q_0	q_2	
q_1	q_2	
q_2	q_3	
q_3	q_3	

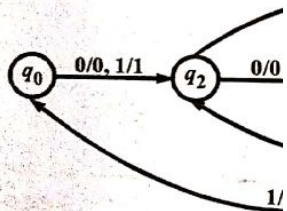


Fig. 1.10 Trans

Q.15. Explain the procedure for a Moore machine with the help of an e

Ans. Consider the Mealy machine in table. 1.4.

Table 1.4 An Examp

Present State	Input $a = 0$			
	State		Output	
	State	Output	State	Output
$\rightarrow q_1$	q_3	0	q_2	0
q_2	q_1	1	q_4	0
q_3	q_2	1	q_1	1
q_4	q_4	1	q_3	0

The construction of the Moore machine which is equivalent to the Mealy machine is as follows –

At the first stage, we develop the procedure so that both machines accept exactly the same set of input sequences. We look into the next state column of any state, say q_i , and determine the number of different outputs associated

states, the number of such states uts associated with q_i .

iated with one output 1 and q_2 is . Similarly q_3 and q_4 are associated , we split q_2 and q_4 into q_{20} and can be reconstructed for the new

State Table

State	
Input $a = 1$	
State	Output
q_{20}	0
q_{40}	0
q_{40}	0
q_1	1
q_3	0
q_3	0

state column can be rearranged

Table 1.7 An Equivalent Moore Machine

Present State	Next State		Output
	$a = 0$	$a = 1$	
q_0	q_3	q_{20}	0
q_1	q_3	q_{20}	1
q_{20}	q_1	q_{40}	0
q_{21}	q_1	q_{40}	1
q_3	q_{21}	q_1	0
q_{40}	q_{41}	q_3	0
q_{41}	q_{41}	q_3	1

Table 1.6 gives the Moore machine. Here, we observe that the initial state q_1 is associated with output 1. This means that

of 1, if the machine starts at state q_1 . Thus this Moore machine accepts the zero-length sequence (null sequence) which is not accepted by the Mealy machine. To overcome this situation, either we must neglect the response of the Moore machine to input 1, or we must add a new starting state q_0 , whose state transitions are identical with those of q_1 but whose output is 0. The Moore machine table 1.6 is transformed as table 1.10.

It is clear from the previous Moore machine, the corresponding n states.

Q.16. Explain the procedure to convert a Mealy machine with the help of an example.

Ans. The following procedure is used to convert a Mealy machine from a given Moore machine.

(i) We have to define the output function $\lambda(q, a) = \lambda(\delta(q, a))$.

(ii) The transition function δ is defined by table 1.10.

Table 1.8 An Example of Moore Machine

Present State	Next State		Output
	$a = 0$	$a = 1$	
$\rightarrow q_0$	q_3	q_1	0
q_1	q_1	q_2	1
q_2	q_2	q_3	0
q_3	q_3	q_0	0

Consider the Moore machine given in table 1.8.

We must follow the reverse procedure to convert a Mealy machine. In case of a Moore machine, the output is associated with the state. To form the pair consisting of the next state and the output, we reconstruct the table for Mealy machine.

For example, in table 1.8 the states q_3 and q_1 in the next state column should be associated with outputs 0 and 1, respectively. The transition table for Mealy machine is given in table 1.9.

It is noted that the number of states can be reduced in any model by considering states with identical transition. If two states have identical transition

Q.17. What is Moore machine? How finite automata can be converted to a Mealy machine? Explain with the help of an example.

(R.G.P.V., June 2015)

Moore machine by introducing an output function $\lambda(q)$, such that

$\lambda(q) \in F$

$\lambda(q) \notin F$

defined by table 1.10.

Table 1.11 Moore Machine

Next State		Output
$a = 0$	$a = 1$	
q_2	q_1	1
q_3	q_0	0
q_0	q_3	0
q_1	q_2	0

The value of output is defined by the output function $\lambda(q)$.

$\lambda(q_3) = 0,$

the output values calculated for the Moore machine is shown in table 1.11.

EXAMPLES

Example 1.1 Design a finite automaton that accepts strings containing four 1's in a row. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2008)

Solution: The finite automaton is as shown in fig. 1.11.

The finite automaton is as shown in fig. 1.11.

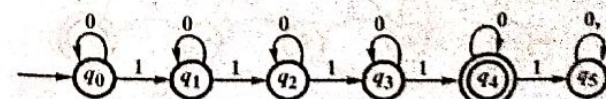


Fig. 1.11 Finite Automaton

Prob.2. Design DFA that accepts all strings with at most 3 a's.
(R.G.P.V., June 20)

Sol. The finite automaton M is given by

$$M = (\{q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}, (a, b), \delta, q_0, \{q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\})$$

The finite automaton is shown in fig. 1.12

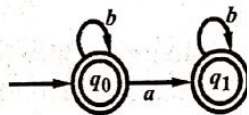


Fig. 1.12

Prob.3. Construct a finite automaton for the language

$$\{0^n \mid n \bmod 3 = 2\}$$

Sol. No. of strings generate are —

00, 00000, 00000000, 000000000, ...

So, finite automata for the given language is shown in fig. 1.13.

Prob.4. Design a NFA for the language

Sol. NFA for the language

$$L = \{cbab^n \mid n \geq 0\}$$

is

$$M = (\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, (a, b, c), \delta, q_0, \{q_2\})$$

Here, the NFA is such that it accepts strings like $cbabb, cbabbb, \dots$

So, NFA for the given language is shown in fig. 1.14.



Prob.5. Draw a deterministic finite automaton for the language $\{w \mid w \text{ contains the substring } abab\}$.

Sol. Given language is,

$$L = \{w \mid w \text{ contains the substring } abab\}$$

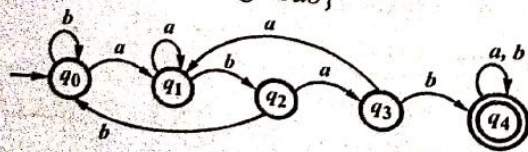


Fig. 1.15 Finite Automata Accepting $\{a, b\}^* \{abab\}$

Prob.6. Design a machine which checks whether a given decimal number is "EVEN".

Sol. There will be two states one for EVEN and second one for odd. The states 0, 2, 4, 6, 8 indicate that they are even numbers because when we divide by 2, the remainder is '0' otherwise odd number.

Table

1, 3, 5, 7, 9
q1
q1
q1

Even state is starting state i.e.,

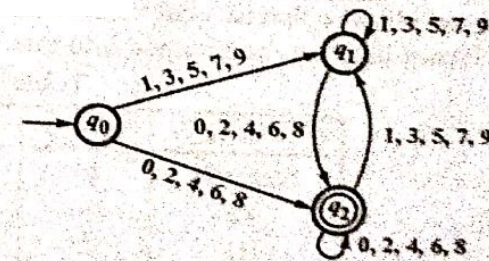
0.

6, 7, 8, 9}

states

3, 5, 7, 9
0
0
0

2 46710321
24 6710321
246 710321
2467 10321
24671 0321



246710 q_2 321

2467103 q_1 21

24671032 q_2 1

246710 321

As we end up in the state q_2 , the number is odd.

Prob. 7. Design a machine for divisibility by 4.

Sol. To check divisibility by 4, remainder '0', remainder '1', remainder '2', remainder '3' are the possible remainders starting from the starting state.

Q	Σ
	S
Rem '0' q_0	
Rem '1' q_1	
Rem '2' q_2	
Rem '3' q_3	

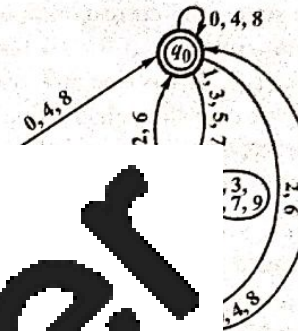
Note – We can merge states q_0 and q_4 as both of them are final states.

In table 1.14 row- q_1 and row- q_3 are non-final states. So we are

Q	Σ
Start	
q_0	
q_1	
q_2	

we can observe that two columns are identical. Hence they can be grouped.

Q	Σ	0, 4, 8	1, 3, 5, 7, 9	2, 6
Start (S)		q_0	q_1	q_2
q_0		q_0	q_1	q_2
q_1		q_2	q_1	q_0
q_2		q_0	q_1	q_2



the machine equivalent to M_N is the table given in table 1.17.

M_N

i.e., $\phi, [q_0], [q_0, q_1], [q_1]$.

as they are the only states

in table 1.18.

M_D

$[q_1]$	$[q_1]$	$[q_0, q_1]$
$[q_0, q_1]$	$[q_0, q_1]$	$[q_0, q_1]$

q_0 and q_1 appear in the rows corresponding to q_0 and q_1 and the column corresponding to a . So, $\delta([q_0, q_1], a) = [q_0, q_1]$.

When M_N has n states, the corresponding finite acceptor has 2^n states. However, we need not construct δ for all these states, but only for the states reachable from $[q_0]$, this is because, we have to construct only those δ for states appearing earlier under input columns and construct δ for them. We halt when no more states are reachable.

Prob.9. Give DFA accepting all strings of 0 and 1.

Sol. The expression $(0+1)^*$ in 101. Now we construct a DFA corresponding to given language.

Fig. 1.18 shows a transition diagram for the DFA.



Fig. 1.18

Now, we construct a transition table for the DFA.

Table 1.1

State	0	1
$[q_0]$	$[q_0]$	$[q_0]$

Now, we convert above transition table into state diagram.

Table 1.2

State	0	1
$[q_1]$	$[q_1]$	$[q_1]$
$[q_1 q_2]$	$[q_1 q_2]$	$[q_1 q_2]$
$[q_1 q_3]$	$[q_1 q_3]$	$[q_1 q_3]$
$[q_1 q_2 q_3]$	$[q_1 q_2 q_3]$	$[q_1 q_2 q_3]$

State diagram for required DFA is shown in fig. 1.19.

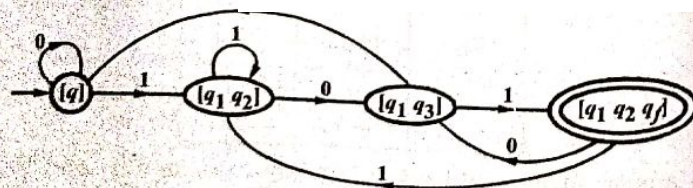


Fig. 1.19 DFA Accepting Strings Ending in 101

Prob.10. Design deterministic finite automaton accepting the following languages over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$ –

- The set of all words ending in 00.
- The set of all words except ϵ .

with 0.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2015)

notes all strings of 0's and 1's
gram for the DFA.

0

ords except ϵ over the alphabet

0, 1

words that begin with 0 over

0, 1

uage over the alphabet 0, 1
(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2016)

Prob.12. Design FA which accepts even no. of 0's and even no. of 1's.
(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2011)

Or

Construct DFA over input alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ to accept string which contains no. of 0 is even and no. of 1 is even.
(R.G.P.V., June 2010)

Or

Construct a DFA accepting set of all strings containing even no. of a 's and even no. of b 's over alphabet $\{a, b\}$.
(R.G.P.V., June 2009)

Sol. Consider the transition diagram of fig. 1.23. This FA is denoted $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$, where $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3\}$, $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, $F = \{q_0\}$. δ is shown in fig. 1.24.

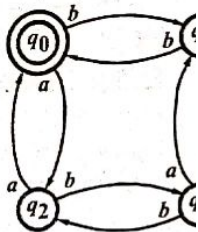


Fig. 1.23 The Transition of a Finite Automaton

Suppose $bbabab$ is input
 $\delta(q_0, bb) = \delta(\delta(q_0, b), b) =$

Therefore, bb is in $L(M)$,
 $\delta(q_0, a) = q_2$. Thus,

$$\delta(q_0, b)$$

Continuing in this manner

$$\delta(q_0, bb)$$

and finally $\delta(q_0, bbabab)$

The entire state of sequence

$$q_0^b q_1^b q_0^a q_2^b q_1^a q_0^b$$

Thus $bbabab$ is in $L(M)$.

Prob.13. Construct a finite automaton

(i) Having odd number of a 's

(ii) Having even number of a 's

Sol. (i) Having odd number of a 's

The finite automaton M is

$$M = (\{q_0, q_1\},$$

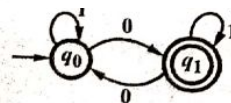


Fig. 1.25

(ii) Having even number of 0's and even number of 1's - Refer

Prob.12.

Prob.14. Construct DFA for -

(i) Binary integer divisible by 3 (ii) $a^n b \mid n \geq 0$.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2009)

Sol. (i) In binary number when we find the corresponding value

Table 1.21

	Σ	0	1
$\rightarrow \textcircled{S}$	q_0	q_1	
'0') $\textcircled{q_0}$	q_0	q_1	
'1') q_1	q_2	q_0	
'2') q_2	q_1	q_2	

bit
bit)

'0', i.e. state q_0
bit)

bit)

it)

ate ' q_0 '
next bit)

1' i.e., q_1
1(next bit)

2' i.e., state q_2)

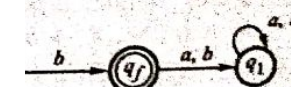


Fig. 1.27

Fig. 1.26

(ii) No. of strings generated by language $a^n b \mid n \geq 0$ are $b, ab, aab,$

$aaab, \dots$

DFA for the given language is shown in fig. 1.27.

Prob.15. Construct a finite automaton that will accept those strings a binary number that are divisible by three. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2012)

Sol. Refer to Prob.14 (i).

Prob.16. Define deterministic finite automata. Draw DFA that accept any string which ends with 1 or it ends with an even number of 0's.

Sol. DFA – Refer to C

A DFA can be determined

$$M = (\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, \{0, 1\}, \delta, q_0, \{q_1, q_2\})$$

where δ is defined in form

Class of language accepted

$$L = \{0, 1\}^* \{1\} \cup \{0, 1\}^* 0^2$$

Prob.17. Construct a finite automaton that accepts the number of 1's in w is even.

Sol. The finite automaton

$$M = (\{q_0, q_1\}, \{0, 1\}, \delta, q_0, \{q_0\})$$

Prob.18. Construct a finite automaton that accepts the strings of the form $a^n b^m$ where $n, m \geq 1$.

Sol. The above grammar

of the form $\{a^n b^m \mid n, m \geq 1\}$

When the above grammar is

$S \rightarrow bA \mid ba, A \rightarrow$

$S \rightarrow bA \mid ba, A \rightarrow$

Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta[S],$

$[B], [aB], [\epsilon]\}, T = \{a, b\}$

$$\delta([S], \epsilon) = [bA], [ba]$$

$$\delta([A], \epsilon) = [bA], [bB]$$

$$\delta([B], \epsilon) = [aB], [a]$$

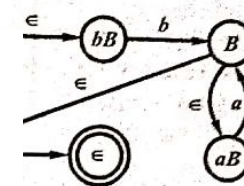
$$\delta([bA], b) = [A]$$

$$\delta([ba], b) = [a]$$

$$\delta([a], a) = [\epsilon]$$

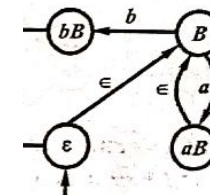
$$\delta([bB], b) = [B]$$

$$\delta([aB], a) = [B]$$



ear Grammar

in fig. 1.30. To get the final reverse the NFA and the result



r Grammar

the set of all string over the alphabet {a, b} that are divisible by 5 and number of 1's is even. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2012)

that number of zero divisible by 5 and number of 1's is even. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2013)

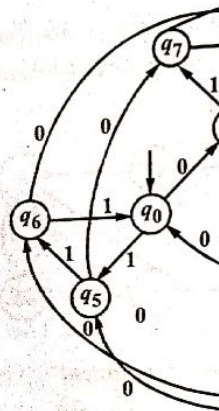
1.32. This FA is denoted by $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ where $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, q_5, q_6, q_7, q_8, q_9, q_{10}, q_{11}, q_{12}, q_{13}\}$ and δ is shown in table 1.23.

table

1	
q_5	First One
q_7	First One
q_9	First One
q_{11}	First One
q_{13}	First One
q_6	

Second Zero q_1
Third Zero q_2
Fourth Zero q_3
Fifth Zero q_4
Second One q_5

q_2
 q_3
 q_4
 q_0
 q_7

q_8
$$(q_0)$$
$$\begin{array}{c} q_8 \\ q_1 \\ q_{10} \\ q_2 \\ q_{12} \end{array}$$

$$M = (\{p, q, r, s\}, \{0,$$

1
2
3
4
5

$$M_1 = \{2Q, \{0, 1\}, \delta, p, F\}$$

We start the construction by considering $[p]$ first. The state table is

in table 1.24.

State	0	1
[p]	[q, s]	[q]
[q]	[r]	[q, r]
[q, s]	[r]	[q, r, p]
[r]	[s]	[p]
		[q, r, p]
		[p, q, r]
		[p]
		[p]
		[p, q, r]

b
12, 93
93
92
—

valent to M is defined as follows —

<i>State</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>
$[q_0]$	$[q_1, q_3]$	$[q_2, q_3]$
$[q_1, q_3]$	$[q_1]$	$[q_3]$
$[q_1]$	$[q_1]$	$[q_3]$
$[q_2, q_3]$	$[q_3]$	$[q_2]$
$[q_2]$	$[q_3]$	$[q_2]$
$[q_3]$	ϕ	ϕ

to an equivalent deterministic

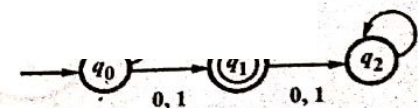


Fig. 1.33

Sol. The *NFA* starts in state q_0 , so the initial state of the *DFA* will be labelled $\{q_0\}$. Since $\delta_N(q_0, 0) = \{q_0, q_1\}$, we introduce the state $\{q_0, q_1\}$ in

G_D and add an edge labeled 0 between $\{q_0\}$ and $\{q_0, q_1\}$. In the same way considering $\delta_N(q_0, 1) = \{q_1\}$ gives us the new state $\{q_1\}$ and an edge labeled 1 between it and $\{q_0\}$.

Similarly,

$$\delta_N(\{q_1\}, 0) = \{q_2\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_1\}, 1) = \{q_2\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_0, q_1\}, 0) = \delta(\{q_0, q_1\}, 0) = \{q_0, q_1\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, 0) = \delta(\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, 0) = \{q_0, q_1, q_2\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, 1) = \{q_1, q_2\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_0, q_1\}, 1) = \delta(\{q_0, q_1\}, 1) = \{q_1\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_1, q_2\}, 0) = \{q_2\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_1, q_2\}, 1) = \{q_2\}$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_2\}, 0) = \phi$$

$$\delta_N(\{q_2\}, 1) = \{q_2\}$$

The result, shown in fig. 1.34,

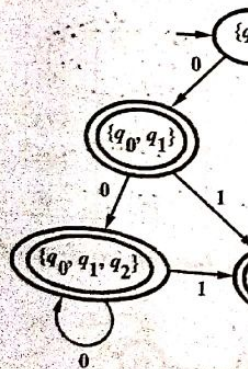
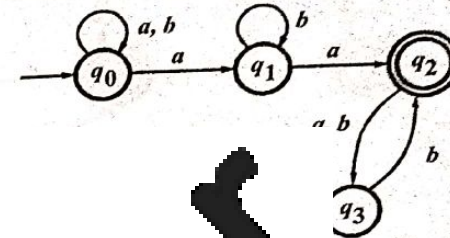


Fig. 1.34



Prob.23. Construct minimized DFA for the given NFA.



(R.G.P.V., June 2009)

fig. 1.35). (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2008)

shows the transition table of the

Transition Table for the DFA

Input	
a	b
$[q_0, q_1]$	$[q_0]$
$[q_0, q_1, q_2]$	$[q_0, q_1]$
$[q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3]$	$[q_0, q_1, q_3]$
$[q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3]$	$[q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3]$
$[q_0, q_1, q_2]$	$[q_0, q_1, q_2]$

DFA, and given in table 1.27. reduced DFA.

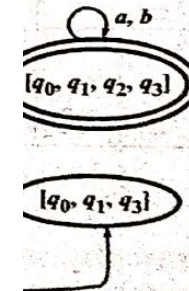
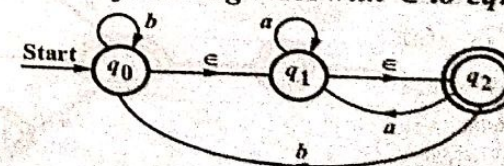


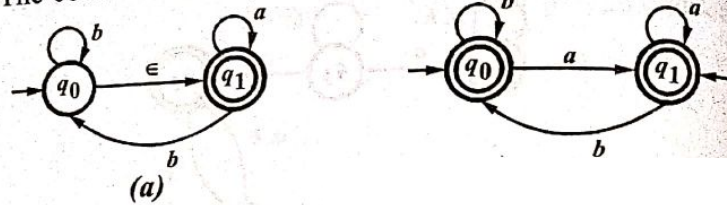
Fig. 1.37

(R.G.P.V., June 2011)

Prob.24. Convert the following NFA with ϵ to equivalent DFA.



Sol. The conversion of NFA to DFA is given step-by-step in fig. 1.1



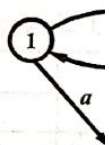
Fi

The DFA shown in fig. 1.38 (b)



Fi

Prob.25. Convert the following



F

Sol. We construct the transition ϵ -moves as given in table 1.28.

Table 1.28

Ta

State	Input	
	a	b
①	1, 3	—
②	1	—
3	2	3, 2

The successor table is constructed. The state diagram for the successor table is the required DFA as indicated in fig. 1.41 since ① and ② are the only final states of NFA, therefore all states are the final states of DFA.

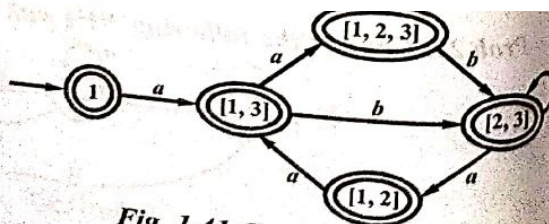


Fig. 1.41 Constructed DFA

Prob.26. Determine the DFA equivalent to the given NFA –

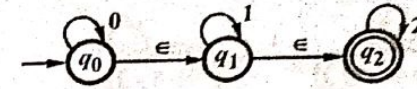


Fig. 1.42

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2016)

p such that there is a path from q

$\{q_2\}$

$\}$

and $\{q_2\} = A_3$

$\})$

$\cup \hat{\delta}(q_2, \epsilon, 0))$

$(\because A_3 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_1)$

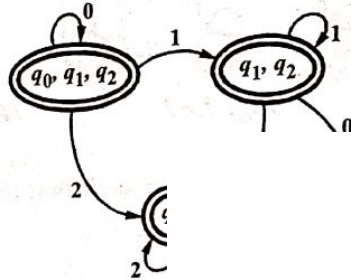
$\delta(q_2, 0))$

Transition matrix is shown in table 1.30.

Table 1.30

State \ Input	0	1	2
q_0, q_1, q_2	q_0, q_1, q_2	q_1, q_2	q_2
q_1, q_2	ϕ	q_1, q_2	q_2
q_2	ϕ	ϕ	q_2

So the required DFA is shown in fig. 1.43.



Prob.27. Draw a Mealy machine which is identical to the input string.

Sol. The Mealy machine is given by:

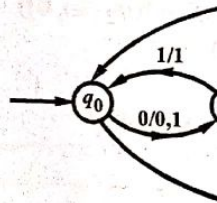


Fig. 1.44 Mealy machine

Let us convert the transition problem. Table 1.31 shows the required Mealy machine.

Table 1.31 Mealy machine

Present State	0	1
q_0	q_0	q_1
q_1	q_1	q_2
q_2	q_2	q_3
q_3	q_3	q_0

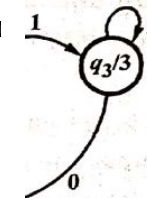
Prob.28. Construct a Moore machine which calculates mod-4 for each binary string treated as binary integer.

Sol. Since last two digits of every binary integer decides whether integer is divisible by 4 or not. So that it can also decide what will be the remainder of the integer is divisible by 4 as

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2004)

Last Two Digits of Binary Integer	Remainder
00	0
01	1
10	2
11	3

mod-4 for each binary string treated

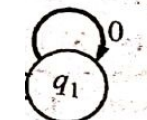


mod-4 for Each Binary Integer

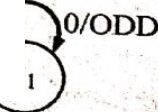
which can output EVEN, ODD. The input string is even or odd. The input string is even or odd. The input string is even or odd. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2010)

0 denotes even number of ones
1 denotes odd number of ones

0	1
q_0	q_1
q_1	q_0



put-symbol.



MEALY MACHINE

We can check that given string containing even numbers of ones or odd numbers of ones. Suppose input string is $\rightarrow 01110$

$q_0 1 1 1 0 \Rightarrow O/P \rightarrow \text{EVEN}$

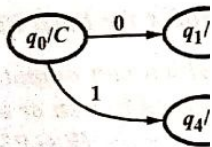
$0 q_0 1 1 1 0 \Rightarrow O/P \rightarrow \text{ODD}$

$01 \underline{q_1} 110 \Rightarrow \text{O/P} \rightarrow \text{EVEN}$
 $011 \underline{q_0} 10 \Rightarrow \text{O/P} \rightarrow \text{ODD}$
 $0111 \underline{q_0} 0 \Rightarrow \text{O/P} \rightarrow \text{ODD}$
 $01110 \underline{q_1}$

q_1 shows that given string contains

Prob.30. Give Mealy and Moore machine equivalent to the given Moore machine.

Sol. This machine is designed such that the output is A, if the input ends in '000', otherwise output C.



Now, we will insert the positions where the Moore machine becomes

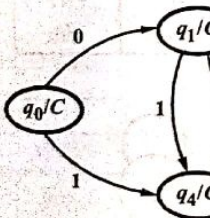


Fig. 1.

Now the Mealy machine will be

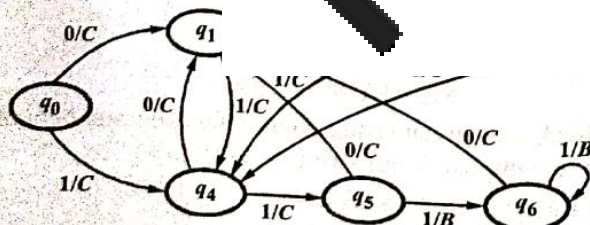
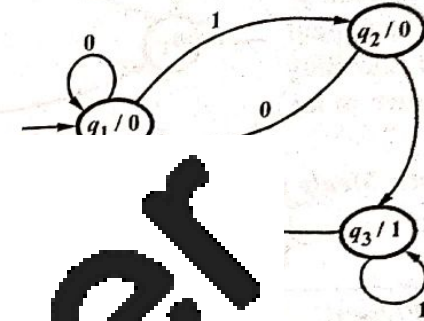


Fig. 1.48 Mealy Machine

Prob.31. Construct the Mealy machine equivalent to the given Moore machine -



Machine

Convert the diagram into the transition table as

for Moore Machine

State	Output
$a = 1$	
q_2	0
q_3	0
q_3	1

as shown in table 1.33 by the procedure is described in Q.17.

Transition Table

State	Output
$a = 1$	
q_2	0
q_3	1
q_3	1

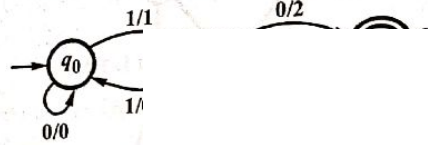
q_2 and q_3 are identical. So, we will reconstruct the table by

the Given Moore Machine

Present State	Next State			
	$a = 0$		$a = 1$	
	State	Output	State	Output
$\rightarrow q_1$	q_1	0	q_2	0
q_2	q_1	0	q_2	1

The pair of states and outputs in the next state column can be rearranged as given in table 1.39.

Prob.34. Construct Moore machine for the following Mealy machine



Sol. Transition table of the

State	State
$\rightarrow q_0$	q_0
q_1	q_2
q_2	q_1

Rearranged transition table

Present State	Next State
q_{00}	q_0
q_{01}	q_2
q_1	q_1
q_2	q_1

Resultant Moore machine is

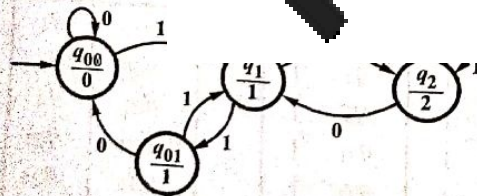


Fig. 1.54

Prob.35. Convert the following Mealy machine into its equivalent Moore machine

Present	Next State
	$a = 1$
state	Output
12	n
12	n
12	y

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2012)

own in table 1.42.

ate Table

te	Output
$a = 1$	
te	Output
n	n
n	n
n	n
y	y
y	y

next state column can be
is equivalent to the Moore

Equivalent
chine

output	
q_{1n}	q_{1y}
q_{1y}	q_{1y}
q_{2n}	q_{1n}
q_{2y}	q_{1n}
q_{2n}	q_{2n}
q_{2y}	q_{2y}
q_{2n}	q_{2y}
q_{2y}	q_{2y}

The corresponding transition diagram is shown in fig. 1.55.



Prob.36. Construct a machine –

Table 1.44

State
→ q_1
q_2
q_3
q_4

Sol. The transition diagram is shown in fig. 1.56.



Fig. 1.56 Mealy Machine

Now, we construct the transition table as shown in table 1.45. The procedure is described in Q.16.

Table 1.45 Intermediate State Table

Present	Next State	
	$a = 0$	$a = 1$
	State	Output
q_{20}		0
q_4		1
q_4		1
q_{31}		1
q_{31}		1
q_1		1

the state column can be rearranged

State Table

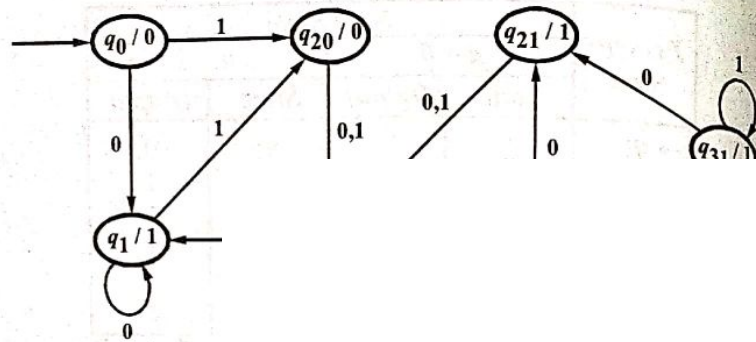
State	Output
q_{20}	1
q_4	0
q_4	1
q_{31}	0
q_{31}	1
q_1	1

with output 1. This means that with the state starts at state q_1 . To overcome this, whose state transitions are 0. So, table 1.45 is transformed

to the Given Mealy Machine

	Output
q_1	0
q_{20}	1
q_4	0
q_{21}	1
q_{30}	0
q_{31}	1
q_4	1

The corresponding transition diagram is shown in fig. 1.57.



UNIT

EXPRESSIONS, REGULAR
REGULAR GRAMMARS,
NERODE THEOREM,
ULAR LANGUAGES,
PING LEMMA

ymbols. In the case of a common
ie alphabet to include 26 letters,
blanks and various punctuation
uage; we would want to add the

ence of symbols juxtaposed. For
s a string.

is the number of symbols in the
empty string denoted by ϵ , is the

ding symbols of that string and a
example, string abc has prefixes
 and abc . A prefix or suffix of a
proper prefix or suffix.

nd v is the string obtained by

appending the symbols of v to the right end of w , that is, if

$$w = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$$

and

$$v = b_1 b_2 \dots b_m$$

then the concatenation of w and v , denoted by wv , is

$$wv = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n b_1 b_2 \dots b_m$$

The empty string is the identity for the concatenation operator. The reverse of a string w is obtained by writing the symbols in reverse order, if w is a string as shown above, then its reverse

$$w^R = a_n \dots a_2 a_1$$

Q.3. Explain the term

Ans. Refer to Q.1 and

Q.4. What do you mean

Explain the left line

Ans. A regular grammar

A grammar $G = (V, \Sigma, P, S)$ of the form –

where $A, B, \in V$, and $x \in \Sigma$

A grammar is said to

Note that, in a regular grammar, the right side of any production must be of the form Ax or x , where $A \in V$ and $x \in \Sigma$. The leftmost or rightmost symbol of the right side must be a terminal symbol.

Q.5. How can we construct a regular expression

Ans. We can construct a regular expression using the following method –

- Construct a regular expression for each terminal symbol.
- Eliminate the terminal symbols from the regular expressions.
- From the regular expressions, construct a regular expression for the language.

Q.6. Describe regular expressions.

Write short note on regular expressions.

Define regular expressions.

Ans. The languages accepted by finite automata are easily described using regular expressions called regular expressions. Regular expressions are used for representing certain sets of strings in an algebraic fashion. This notation for regular expression involves a combination of strings of symbols from the alphabet over Σ , parenthesis, and the operators such as + and *.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2017)

Unit-II 51

Formal Definition of a Regular Expression – Regular expressions are constructed from primitive constituents by repeatedly applying certain recursive rules. The primitive constituents are the symbols of the alphabet and the sets that they denote are the regular expressions.

The symbols Σ, Λ, ϕ , are regular expressions. If R_1 and R_2 , written as

expressions R_1 and R_2 , written

regular expression R , written as

R is also a regular expression. The precedence of operations as follows – i.e., in evaluating a regular expression, first perform iteration, then concatenation, and finally union.

ion. (R.G.P.V., Dec. 2017)

and ϕ , are equivalent (i.e., they denote the same set of strings).

expressions. These are useful for

$$(xi) (P + Q)^* = (P^*Q^*)^* = (P^* + Q^*)^*$$

$$(xii) (P + Q)R = PR + QR \text{ and } R(P + Q) = RP + RQ$$

(‘Set P ’ means that the set represented by the regular expression P)

Q.8. Define the language associated with regular expressions.

Ans. Regular expressions can be used to describe some simple languages. If R is a regular expression, we will let $L(R)$ denote the language associated with R .

with R . This language is defined as follows –

The language $L(R)$ denoted by any regular expression R is defined by the following rules –

(i) ϕ is a regular expression, denoting the empty set

(ii) A is a regular expression denoting $\{A\}$

(iii) For every $a \in \Sigma$, a

If R_1 and R_2 are regular ex

(iv) $L(R_1 + R_2) = L(R_1) \cup L(R_2)$

(vi) $L((R_1)^*) = \{L(R_1)^*\}$

The last four rules are used recursively. While the first three are used for the recursion.

For example, we can exhibit the following –

$$L(a^*(a+b)) = L(a^*a + a^*b)$$

$$= L(a^+ + a^*b)$$

$$= L(a^+ \cup a^*b)$$

$$= L(a^+ \cup a^*b)$$

But, there is a problem with this definition. It is not precise if there is ambiguity in dividing a complicated regular expression $ab + c$, into $L(ab + c) = \{ab, c\}$. But, taking $R_1 = a$ and $R_2 = b + c$. Now $L(R_1 + R_2) = L(a + b + c) = \{a, b, c\}$. To get over this, we require a set of rules, but this makes the result cumbersome. From mathematics and programming, the precedence rules for evaluation in regular expressions are: concatenation precedes union and concatenation precedes union.

Q.9. Define regular set. E.

Write short note on regular set.

Ans. A regular set is the set of strings that can be formed by concatenating the symbols in Σ . If $a, b \in \Sigma$, then a denotes the set $\{a\}$, $a + b$ denotes $\{a, b\}$, ab denotes $\{ab\}$, a^* denotes the set $\{A, a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$ and $(a + b)^*$ denotes $\{a, b\}^*$. For example, the following sets can be described as regular expressions:

- (i) $\{1\}, \{0\}$ are represented by 1 and 0 , respectively. 10^* obtained by concatenating $1, 0$ and 1 . So, $\{101\}$ is represented by 101 .
- (ii) $\{abba\}$ is represented by $abba$.

(iii) As $\{ab, ba\}$ is the union of $\{ab\}$ and $\{ba\}$, $\{ab, ba\}$ is represented by $ab + ba$

(iv) The set $\{A, 10\}$ is represented by $A + 10$

(v) The set $\{abb, a, b, bba\}$ is represented by $abb + a + b + bba$

$\{a^*\}$, it is represented by a^* . $\{a^*\}$ can be obtained by a^* represents $\{1, 11, 111, \dots\}$

regular expressions?

P and Q are equivalent if and only if $L(P) = L(Q)$.

three ways –

1. (For non-equivalence,

2. (For equivalence,

3. (For equivalence, M and M' are not equivalent if and only if $L(M) \neq L(M')$).

according to the problem.

Proving the relation between regular expressions and NFAs

1. (For equivalence, M and M' are not equivalent if and only if $L(M) \neq L(M')$).

2. (For equivalence, M and M' are not equivalent if and only if $L(M) \neq L(M')$).

3. (For equivalence, M and M' are not equivalent if and only if $L(M) \neq L(M')$).

4. (For equivalence, M and M' are not equivalent if and only if $L(M) \neq L(M')$).

The expression R must be ϵ , ϕ , or a for some a in Σ . The NFAs in fig. 2.1 (a), (b) and (c) clearly satisfy the conditions.

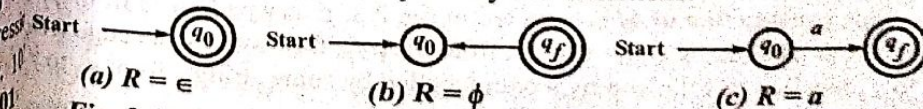


Fig. 2.1 Transition Systems Recognizing Elementary Regular Sets

Induction Step – Assume that the theorem is true for regular expressions with fewer than i operators, $i \geq 1$. Let R have i operators. There are cases depending on the form of R .

(i) **Case 1** – For union, i.e., $R = R_1 + R_2$. Both R_1 and R_2 have fewer than i operators. Thus there are NFAs $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma_1, \delta_1, q_1, f_1)$ and $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma_2, \delta_2, q_2, f_2)$. Since, we may rename states disjoint. Let q_0 be a new initial state.

$M =$

where δ is defined by,

(a) $\delta(q_0, \epsilon) =$

(b) $\delta(q, a) =$

(c) $\delta(q, a) =$

(d) $\delta(f_1, \epsilon) =$

Recall by the inductive hypothesis that f_1 or f_2 in M_1 or M_2 . Thus a construction of M is depicted in Fig. 2.2. Every path in M is labelled x in M from q_0 to f_1 or a path in M_2 as desired.

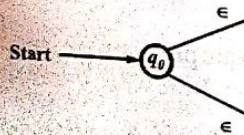


Fig. 2.2 Trans.

(ii) **Case 2** – For concatenation, i.e., $R = R_1 R_2$. In case 1 and then we construct M as follows.

where δ is given by,

(a) $\delta(q, a) =$

(b) $\delta(f_1, \epsilon) = q_2$

(c) $\delta(q, a) = \delta_2(q, a)$ for q in Q_2 and a in $\Sigma_2 \cup \{\epsilon\}$

The construction of M is depicted in Fig. 2.3. Every path in M from q_0 to f_2 is a path labelled by some string x from q_1 to f_1 , followed by the edge $f_1 \rightarrow q_2$ labelled ϵ , followed by a path labelled by some string y from q_2 to f_2 . Thus $L(M) = L(M_1) L(M_2)$ as desired.

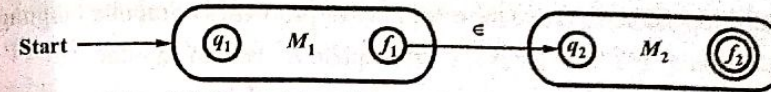
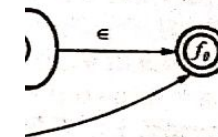


Fig. 2.3 Transition System Recognizing $R = R_1 R_2$

Let $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma_1, \delta_1, q_1, f_1)$ and $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma_2, \delta_2, q_2, f_2)$.

$\{f_1\}$ and a in $\Sigma_1 \cup \{\epsilon\}$

It follows that there is a string $x = x_1 x_2 \dots x_j$ for that each x_i is in $L(M_1)$.



Recognizing $R = R_1^*$

Constructing a regular expression

Regular sets.

Intersection.

3, Dec. 2003, June 2004)

under complement and
(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2002)

Regular grammar.

(R.G.P.V., Dec. 2017)

Mention the closure properties of regular languages. (R.G.P.V., Nov. 2018)

Ans. If L_1 and L_2 are regular languages, then there exist regular expressions R_1 and R_2 such that $L_1 = L(R_1)$ and $L_2 = L(R_2)$. By definition, $R_1 + R_2$, $R_1 R_2$, and R_1^* are regular expressions denoting the languages $L_1 \cup L_2$, $L_1 L_2$, and L_1^* , respectively. Thus, closure under union, concatenation, and star-closure is immediate.

Following theorems prove the other closure properties of regular languages.

Theorem 1. If L is regular then transpose L^T is also regular.

Proof. Every regular expression is recognized by transition system M can be converted into finite acceptor (FA), accepting the same set as M . Any set accepted by

A subset L of Σ^* is regular set if and

We can construct a FA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ such that $L(M) = L$.

We construct a transition system M' and reversing the direction of the edges of M . M' is defined as the set F , and q_0 is the final state. $M' = (Q, \Sigma, \delta', F, \{q_0\})$.

If $w \in L(M)$, we have a path from q_0 to F with value w . By 'reversing the edges', we get a path from F to q_0 . Its path value is w^T . So $w^T \in L(M')$. If $w_1 \in L(M')$, then $w_1^T \in L(M)$. Thus $L(M) = L(M')^T$. We can prove $L(M')$ is regular by induction on $|w|$. So L of Σ^* is a regular set if and only if $L(M)$ is regular, i.e., $L(M)^T$ is regular.

Theorem 4. The class of regular sets is closed under substitution.

Proof. Let $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be a regular set and for each a in Σ let $R_a \subseteq \Delta^*$ be a regular set. Let $f : \Sigma \rightarrow \Delta^*$ be the substitution defined by $f(a) = R_a$. Select a regular expression denoting R and each R_a . Replace each occurrence of the regular expression for R_a . To test $f(R)$, observe that the substitution, product or closure of operators in the regular

expression is closed under homomorphisms.

It follows immediately from closure properties that the class of regular sets is closed under substitution, in which

case, let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be a finite automaton. We define a homomorphism from Δ to Σ^* . We select a symbol a in Δ and simulating M with a . We define $\delta(q, a)$, for q in Q . δ is a long string, or ϵ , but δ is well-defined by induction on $|x|$ that

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